

ican Journal Public Health

June 1991, Vol. 81, No. 6

Established 1911

Editorials

685 Childhood Lead Poisoning: A Disease for the History Texts

H. I. Needleman

687 Can Stress Cause Cancer? D. T. Janerich

Commentary

Drake Chemical Workers' Health Registry: Coping with Community Tension over Toxic Exposures L. C. Leviton, G. M. Marsh, E. Talbott, D. Pavlock, and C. Callahan

Featuring Environmental and Occupational Health

- 694 Asthmatic Responses to Airborne Acid Aerosols B. D. Ostro, M. J. Lipsett, M. B. Wiener, and J. C. Selner
- 703 A Randomized Trial to Evaluate the Risk of Gastrointestinal Disease due to Consumption of Drinking Water Meeting Current Microbiological Standards P. Payment, L. Richardson, J. Siemiatycki, R. Dewar, M. Edwardes, and E. Franco
- 709 Risk Assessment and Control of Waterborne Giardiasis J. B. Rose, C. N. Haas, and S. Regli
- 719 Cancer Rates after the Three Mile Island Nuclear Accident and Proximity of Residence to the Plant M. C. Hatch, S. Wallenstein, J. Beyea, J. W. Nieves, and M. Susser
- 725 Effectiveness of Source Documents for Identifying Fatal Occupational Injuries: A Synthesis of Studies N. Stout and C. Bell
- 729 Female Homicides in United States Workplaces, 1980–1985 C. A. Bell
- 733 Occupation, Industry, and Fatal Motor Vehicle Crashes in 20 States, 1986–1987 D. P. Loomis
- An Analysis of Occupational Blood Lead Trends in Manitoba, 1979 Through
 1987 A. Yassi, M. Cheang, M. Tenenbein, G. Bawden, J. Spiegel, and T. Redekop
- 741 Occupational Carpal Tunnel Syndrome in Washington State, 1984–1988 G. M. Franklin, J. Haug, N. Heyer, H. Checkoway, and N. Peck
- 775 Public Health and the Law: OSHA's Four Inconsistent Carcinogen Policies George J. Annas

Public Health Then and Now

- 781 Understanding History to Shape the Future—The New Editors' Vision E. Fee and R. R. Korstad
- 782 The United Mine Workers of America and the Recognition of Occupational Respiratory Diseases, 1902–1968 A. Derickson
- 791 The Silence: The Asbestos Industry and Early Occupational Cancer Research—A Case Study D. E. Lilienfeld

(continued page 675)

0676********** ALL FOR APH 2PD J 3 S43503289106 CALIFORNIA STATE LIB PER IODICALS SECTION P O BOX 942837 SACRAMENTO. CA 94237



American Public Health Association

八百十二十分

Featuring
Environmental and
Occupational Health

Risk Assessment and Control of Waterborne Giardiasis

ABSTRACT

Background: Waterborne giardiasis has been increasing in the United States with 95 outbreaks reported over the last 25 years. The Safe Drinking Water Act has mandated control of this pathogen.

Methods: A risk assessment model was developed to estimate risk of infection after exposure to treated waters containing varying levels of Giardia cysts. The model was defined by a dose-response curve developed from human feeding studies for Giardia and assumed 2L of water consumption per day. Data on concentrations and distribution of the organism in source waters were used to assess exposure after varying reductions achieved through treatment.

Results: In surveys reporting prevalence and levels of Giardia cyst contamination, average levels of cysts in surface waters ranged from 0.33 to 104/100L; from pristine watersheds (protected from all human activity) 0.6 to 5/100L. Yearly risks were 4.8×10^{-3} for systems using polluted waters and 1.3×10^{-4} for pristine waters with a 10^{-3} treatment reduction.

Conclusion: Public Health officials will need to work with the water industry to ensure a risk of less than 1/10,000 for source waters with 0.7 to 70 cysts per 100 liters through treatment achieving reduction of 10⁻³ to 10⁻⁵, respectively, of Giardia cysts. (Am J Public Health. 1991;81:709–713)

Joan B. Rose, PhD, Charles N. Haas, PhD, and Stig Regli

Introduction

Giardia is the most frequently isolated enteric protozoan from populations worldwide and the most common pathogenic parasite in the United States.¹ Waterborne giardiasis has been increasing in the United States with 95 outbreaks reported over the last 25 years,² and Giardia is the most common identifiable etiological agent of all waterborne outbreaks. Bennet et al.³ have also estimated that 60 percent of all Giardia infections are acquired through contaminated water.

Giardia cysts may be found in water as a result of the deposition of fecal material from both man and animals. Surveys of Giardia cyst levels in various waters indicate that 26–43 percent of the surface waters were contaminated with Giardia cysts ranging in concentrations from 0.3 to 100 cysts per 100L.5–10 Sykora9 has reported an average of 10⁴ cysts/100L in raw sewage with an approximate reduction of 10⁻² after treatment (152 cysts/100 L).

The Surface Water Treatment Rule has been promulgated to address the amendments to the Safe Drinking Water Act for controlling Giardia in treated drinking water.4 This rule mandates that all surface waters be treated to achieve at least a reduction of 10^{-3} (99.9 percent removal) of Giardia cysts. Disinfection is required for all systems and filtration is required unless the system meets site specific criteria and has a protected watershed. The US Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) has also recommended that a treatment be provided to ensure that populations are not subject to risk of infection of greater than 1:10,000 (10⁻⁴) for a yearly exposure, and that this is an acceptable level of safety for potable waters.

As the new regulations and rules come into effect, health departments will

be called upon to ensure that the public is adequately protected against waterborne disease. Risk assessment is a tool by which health officials can communicate with the water industry by interpreting water quality surveys and assisting in defining the adequacy of treatment adhering to EPA's recommendations of potable water quality and acceptable public health risks. This will become particularly important as states implement the Surface Water Treatment Rule, evaluate new technologies, and determine what water management practices will impact public health.

This paper presents a risk assessment model that was used to estimate risk of infection due to waterborne exposure to *Giardia*. Dose-response curves were developed based on human infectivity studies, and data on the occurrence of *Giardia* cyst contamination in waters throughout the US were used to define the water treatment needed to reduce the risk of waterborne giardiasis.

Methods

To predict a potential public impact when the risk is small, models are used to estimate the risk after exposure. Haas reviewed three probability models for their ability to describe experimental dose-response data for humans after exposure to

Address reprint requests to Joan B. Rose, PhD, Assistant Professor, Department of Environmental and Occupational Health, University of South Florida, 13301 Bruce B. Downs Blvd, Tampa, FL 33612-3899. Dr. Haas is with the Department of Environmental Engineering, Illinois Institute of Technology; Mr. Regli is with the Office of Drinking Water, US Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, DC. This paper, submitted to the Journal April 19, 1990, was revised and accepted for publication December 10, 1990.

June 1991, Vol. 81, No. 6

The second secon

American Journal of Public Health 709

various enteric microorganisms.¹¹ Using the same approach, the simple exponential and beta distributed effectiveness models were evaluated for prediction of *Giardia* infectivity using experimental data developed by Rendtorff^{12,13} in human feeding studies.

In Rendtorff's experiments, Giardia cyst doses ranging from 1 to 106 were fed to volunteers, and a positive response was measured by cyst excretion in the feces (Appendix). Laboratory dose-response studies generally appear to be conducted under conditions where the distribution of microorganisms in the administered dose may be regarded as Poisson. Under these conditions, if one microorganism is sufficient to cause an infection, and if hostmicroorganism interactions are constant, then the probability of an infection (P_i) resulting from ingestion of a single volume of liquid containing an average number of organisms (N) may be defined by a simple exponential equation.

$$P_i = 1 - \exp(-rN)$$

In this equation, r is the fraction of microorganisms that are ingested which survive to initiate infections ("host-microorganism interaction probability") (Appendix). In this particular case, the exponential model was statistically consistent with the Rendtorff data and r was calculated to equal -0.01982.

The 95 percent confidence limits to the parameter r in the exponential model were computed using a likelihood ratio technique. The resulting interval estimate for r is 0.009798–0.03582. This range was used in the preparation of Figure 1.

Exposure Estimates

Surface waters were classified into two categories: polluted waters contaminated by sewage and agricultural discharges; and pristine waters originating from protected watersheds without point source pollution or input from human activities. Giardia cyst levels were examined for the peak level of contamination from a single sample, average concentrations for each site, and average cyst levels for each water classification. Geometric means were calculated from the average concentrations from each site.5-10 Giardia cyst levels were calculated as cysts/100 L as large volumes of water are routinely sampled for determining levels of contamination.

Using the exponential model, the potential risk of infection was determined

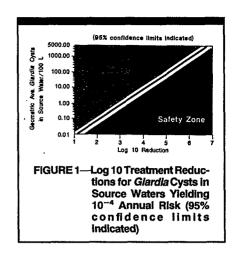
with varying levels of Giardia cysts in drinking water. The model assumed the consumption of two liters of water per day, and exposure N in the formula was defined by numbers of cysts per liter times two liters. Levels of Giardia cysts found in polluted and pristine source waters and assumed levels of 10^{-3} , 10^{-4} , and 10^{-5} removal by treatment were used to estimate exposure in the model. Maximum daily risk was estimated using the peak level of contamination and yearly risk was determined using the geometric mean concentration of Giardia cysts for 365 days of exposure. Probability of infection was determined assuming a Poisson distribution of microorganisms in the drinking water,11

risk of contracting one or more infections = $1-(1-Pr(N))^x$ where x = the number of days exposed and Pr(N) = the daily risk using the geometric average for N.

Data from five waterborne outbreaks of giardiasis were also evaluated for the *Giardia* cyst level of contamination detected in the drinking water and the attack rates in the exposed population. ¹⁴ This information was compared to the estimated infection rates developed by the exponential model after varying days of exposure.

Results

To ensure less than a daily risk of 10^{-4} , systems using source waters containing 250, 2,500 and 25,000 cysts per 100L would need to reduce the level of *Giardia* cysts by 10^{-3} , 10^{-4} and 10^{-5} , respectively, through drinking water treatment (Table 1). Examples of yearly risks for exposure to varying levels of *Giardia* cysts in drinking water are summarized in Table 2. To ensure less than a yearly risk of 10^{-4} , systems using source waters con-



taining a geometric concentration of 0.7, 7.0 and 70 cysts per 100L would require a reduction of 10^{-3} , 10^{-4} and 10^{-5} , respectively, by treatment.

In surveys reporting prevalence and levels of Giardia cyst contamination in surface waters, average levels of cysts ranged from 0.33 to 104/100L. Eight of the areas where samples were collected from received treated sewage or agricultural discharges, however, the level of pollution was not documented.5-10 In water samples originating from pristine watersheds (protected from all human activity) Giardia cyst levels averaged 0.6 to 5/100L. The percentage of positive samples did not vary dramatically from polluted to pristine waters (43 percent and 35 percent, respectively). Peak contamination in a single sample was 5.5 times higher from polluted waters than from pristine waters. However, geometric averages of cysts were 50 times higher for samples collected from polluted waters versus those collected from pristine waters.

The majority of data for the pristine waters was developed from a study by

Con Mod		in Drinking Water I	Jsing an Expo	onential Risk A	ssessment
		Maximum Cyst		et Concentration Per Level of Trea Reductions	
Worst Daily Risk Pr(N) E	Cyst xposure	Concentration in Finished Water per 100L	10-3	10 ⁻¹ Cysts/100L	10 ⁻⁵
The state of the s	0.015	0.75*	7.5×10 ²	7.5×10 ³	7.5×10 ⁴
10 ⁻⁴⁻⁵	0.005 0.0015	0.25 0.075	2,5×10 ² 75	2.5×10 ³ 7.5×10 ²	2.5×10 ⁴ 7.5×10 ³
10-5	0.0005	0.025	25	2.5×10 ²	2.5×10 ³

710 American Journal of Public Health

June 1991, Vol. 81, No. 6

Mo	del				
	Average Daily Cyst	Geometric Mean Cyst Con- centration in Finished Water	centrat	tric Mean Cy ion in Source evel of Treat Reductions	Water
Yearly Risk 1-(1-Pr* (N))366	for a Year	per 100L	10 ⁻³	10 ⁻⁴ Cysts/100 L	10-5
	4 ×10 ⁻⁵	2×10 ⁻⁸	2.0	20	200
10-40	1.4×10 ⁻⁵	7×10=4	0.7	7.0	70
10 ⁻⁴⁻⁵	4 ×10 ⁻⁶ 1.4×10 ⁻⁶	2×10 ⁻⁴ 7×10 ⁻⁵	0.2 0.07	2.0 0.7	20 7.0

eji sebenji da			ragan galasin ka Lengan galasin	With Peak	
		Geometric Cyst		Contamination	
Source	Reduction by	Levels per 100L	Yearly	Cysts/100L in Drinking	Same Comments
Water	Treatment	Water	Risk	Water	Daily Risk
Polluted	10-3	0.033	4.8×10 ⁻³	0.625	2.5×10 ⁻⁴
33	10-4	0.0033	4.8×10 ⁻⁴	0.062	2.5×10 ⁻⁵
cysts ^a /100L	10 ⁵	0.00033	4.8×10 ⁵	0.006	2.5×10 ⁻⁶
Pristine	10-3	0.0009	1.3×10 ⁻⁴	0.114	4.6×10 ⁻⁵
0.9	10=4	0.00009	1.3×10 ⁻⁵	0.0114	4.6×10 ⁻⁶
cysts*/100L	10-5	0.000009	1.3×10 ⁻⁶	0.0011	4.6×10 ⁻⁷

Ongerth, et al. 6 The Tolt, Green and Cedar watersheds in the State of Washington were extensively sampled with 222 samples collected. The averages reported in the publication included a 22 percent recovery adjustment for method efficiencies. The data from the Ongerth study6 used in this paper did not include such adjustments since the data used from other studies^{5,7–10} did not take into account adjustments for recovery efficiencies.

Daily and yearly risks were developed for the peak cyst level and the geometric average, respectively, for the two water categories (Polluted and Pristine). The data are shown in Table 3. Yearly risks ranged from 4.8×10^{-3} for systems using polluted waters with a 10^{-3} treatment reduction to 1.3×10^{-6} for pristine waters with a 10^{-5} treatment reduction. Between 10^{-4} and 10^{-5} reduction with treatment would be required for polluted waters to achieve a similar risk as pristine waters treated for a 10^{-3} removal of *Giardia* cysts. For daily risks for waters con-

taining peak levels of *Giardia* cysts, the differences were not as dramatic between systems using polluted versus pristine source waters. The peak daily risk was approximately five times greater in systems using polluted versus pristine waters receiving similar treatment for removal of cysts

Water samples were collected and Giardia cyst levels were determined during the investigation of five waterborne outbreaks of giardiasis. Attack rates varied from a low of 0.5 percent in the Houtzdale and Pittston outbreaks to a high of 16 percent in the Ft. Plain outbreak. The level of cyst contamination ranged from 0.6 to 21 cysts/100L. Generally the lower levels of contamination were associated with lower levels of infection in the population. The data are shown in Table 4.

All five outbreaks were associated with unfiltered chlorinated surface waters. Three factors primarily influenced the attack rate for infection: first, the level of contamination; second, the level of cyst viability and inactivation through chlori-

nation; and third, the length of exposure to the population whose prior exposure to *Giardia* (and potential immunity) was unknown. Much of this detail is not known. The exponential risk model was applied to the known cyst levels from the outbreak and infection rates were estimated for varying days of exposure. It is unlikely that there was a single day of exposure or that the exposure was equal to the duration of the outbreaks. If one uses intermediate times of exposure, five to 10 days, the infection rates developed by the model ranged from 0.1 to 7.7 percent.

Discussion

Many regulatory and public health agencies have accepted risk assessment models to evaluate the importance of chemical pollutants in water. How well these models reflect reality depends on the accuracy of the model for characterizing the independent variables, assumptions, and the data used to develop the doseresponse curves and exposure.

The most essential component to the risk model described in this paper is the dose-response curve. Giardia species/ strains are known to have a low infectious dose. Rendtorff and Holt demonstrated in 1954 that ingestion of as few as 10 cysts was capable of initiating infection in two volunteers. It must be kept in mind that infection was measured by cyst excretion and illness was not determined. Asymptomatic Giardia infections may range between 39 percent and 76 percent for children less than five years of age and adults. respectively. 15,16 Symptomatic infections, however, have been reported at a rate of 50 percent to 67 percent and as high as 91 percent.17 Chronic giardiasis may also develop in as many as 58 percent of the population infected.18 Thus the illness to infection ratio is highly variable. We addressed only infection in this analysis of

Another important issue regarding the dose response curve based on the Rendtorff data is uncertainty about infectivity due to strain variation and the immune response to infection by different populations. The Rendtorff data are derived from one *Giardia lamblia* strain and one relatively small sample population. The confidence interval around the probability of infection does not take these uncertainties into account when using the model as a predictive tool.

Assuming the dose response relationship derived from the Rendtorff data is representative, we may be overestimating

American Journal of Public Health 711

TABLE 4—Giardia Cyst Contamination of Drinking Waters during Waterborne Outbreaks of Giardiasis and the Relationship to an Exponential Risk Model

	Outbreak Data Estimated Infection Rates after Exposure for (Days)
Duration	Giardia* Attack
Outbreak (days)	Cysts/100L Rates % 1 5 10 30 60
Pittsfield 30	21 3 0.84 3.9 7.7 21 38
Ft. Plain 60 Houtzdale ?	19.5 16 0.78 3.8 7.5 21 37 24 0.5 0.09 0.4 0.9 2.7 5.2
Pittstôn ?	0.87 0.5 0.03 0.1 0.3 0.9 1.8
Wilkes-Barre ?	11 9 04 20 39 11.3 21 06 1 0.02 0.1 0.2 0.6 1.2

⁴Data received from Dr. Judith Sauch, Environmental Protection Agency, Cincinnati, OH. ^{14,15} ^bEstimated from the exponential risk model.

risks based on the assumption that all cysts are viable and all cysts in water are species which infect humans. In addition, the 2L of tap water consumption may represent overestimation of exposure, depending on individuals consumption of other beverages. However, the underestimation of risk may be of greater concern due to underestimation of exposure by the inefficiencies of the methods for detection of *Giardia* cysts in water.

In spite of its limitations, the model can be used to examine waterborne outbreak data and disease surveillance data associated with various exposure routes. Epidemiological data, may be even more insensitive and inaccurate. Attack rates for waterborne outbreaks, defined by the number of illnesses in the exposed population, are developed using a variety of methods; they do not take into account unreported cases or asymptomatic infections, and may include individuals who were not exposed. Estimation of infection based on attack rates is probably understated.

Levels of cysts ranging from 0.6 to 21/100L detected in waters were associated with outbreaks of disease. Giardia cyst levels found in drinking waters averaged 0.19/100L during non-outbreak conditions and were rarely above 1/100L.¹⁹ Based on the data in Table 4, it appears the model may be useful in estimating probability of infection. The greatest limitation of the model may be the underestimation of infection and disease through the use of cyst concentrations in water without taking into account method efficiencies, peak contamination levels, and duration of exposure.

By applying information on *Giardia* cyst levels to Figure 1, public health agencies, regulatory agencies, and water utilities can evaluate the adequacy of current treatment of a drinking water supply, the

need for more effective treatment, or the type of treatment needed in developing new water supplies.

Public health workers must not only have an understanding of waterborne disease. The implications of new regulations, watershed protection, and water treatment on indigenous potential waterborne infections in the population must also be understood. Standard methods are available to assess *Giardia* cyst contamination in water. Health agencies can utilize such data in a risk assessment, cost-benefit approach to establish rational policies for public health protection.

Acknowledgments

This work was initiated during the authors summer term as an Environmental Science and Engineering Fellow sponsored by the American Association for the Advancement of Science at the Office of Drinking Water, US Environmental Protection Agency, Washington, DC, 1988.

References

- Feachem RG, Bradley DH, Garelick H, Mara DD: Sanitation and Disease Health Aspects of Excreta and Wastewater Management. New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1983
- Craun GF: Surface water supplies and health. J Am Water Works Assoc 1988; 80:40-52.
- Bennett JV, Homberg SD, Rogers MF, Solomon SL: Infectious and parasitic diseases. Am J Prev Med 1987; 3:102–114.
- National Primary Drinking Water Regulations: Filtration Disinfection; Turbidity, Giardia lamblia, Viruses, Legionella, and Heterotrophic Bacteria. Final rule, 40 CFR parts 141 and 142. Federal Register June 29, 1989; 54:27486-27541. Washington, DC: Govt Printing Office, 1989.
- Hibler CP: Analysis of municipal water samples for cysts of *Giardia*. *In:* Wallis P, Hammon B (eds): Advances in *Giardia* Research: University of Calgary Press, 1988; 237–245.
- Ongerth JE: Giardia cyst concentrations in river water. J Am Water Works Assoc 1989; 81:81–86.

- Rose JB, Kayed D, Madore MS, Gerba CP, Arrowood MJ, Sterling CR: Methods for the recovery of Giardia and Cryptosporidium from environmental waters and their comparative occurrence. In: Wallis P, Hammond B (eds): Advances in Giardia Research: University of Calgary Press, 1988; 205–209.
- Rose JB, Darbin H, Gerba CP: Correlations of the Protozoa, Cryptosporidium and Giardia with water quality variables in a watershed. Water Sci Tech 1988; 20:271–276.
- Sykora JL, States SJ, Bancroft WD, Boutrous SN, Shapino MA, Conley LF: Monitoring of water and wastewater for Giardia. In: Advances in Water Analysis and Treatment Water Quality Technology Conference, Portland, OR, 1986; 1043–1054. Available from American Water Works Assoc, Denver, CO.
- Willey BR, Harmon DJ, Benjes HH Jr: Survey and evaluations of 80 public water systems in Wyoming. Culp/Wesner/Culp Consulting Eng, Denver, CO. Prepared for US Environmental Protection Agency, Region VIII National Environmental Health Association: January 1986.
- Haas CN: Estimation of risk due to low doses of microorganisms: A comparison of alternative methodologies. Am J Epidemiol 1983; 118:573–582.
- Rendtorff RC: The experimental transmission of human intestinal protozoan parasites. II. Giardia lamblia cysts given in capsules. Am J Hyg 1954; 59:209–220.
- Rendtorff RC, Holt CJ: The experimental transmission of human intestinal protozoan parasites. IV. Attempts to transmit *Enda*moeba coli and *Giardia lamblia* by water. Am J Hyg 1954; 60:327–328.
- 14. Kent GP, Greenspan JR, Herndon JL, Mofenson LM, Harris JS, Eng TR, Waskin HA: Epidemic giardiasis caused by a contaminated public water supply. Am J Public Health 1988; 78:139–143.
- 15. Craft CJ: Giardia and giardiasis in child-hood. Pediatr Infect Dis 1981; 1:196-211.
- Wolf MS: Managing the patient with giardiasis: Clinical, diagnostic and therapeutic aspects. *In:* Jakubowski W, Hoff JC (eds): Waterborne Transmission of Giardiasis. Cincinnati, OH: EPA, 1979; 39–52.
- 17. Veazie L, Brownlee I, Sears HJ: An out-

712 American Journal of Public Health

June 1991, Vol. 81, No. 6

break of gastroenteritis associated with Giardia lamblia. In: Jakubowski W, Hoff JC (eds): Waterborne Transmission of Giardiasis. Cincinnati, OH: EPA, 1979; 174–191.

- Chester AC, MacMurray FG, Restifo MD, Mann O: Giardiasis as a chronic disease. Digest Dis Sci 1985; 30:215-218.
- Rose JB: Environmental sampling for waterborne pathogens: Overview of meth-

ods, application, limitations and data interpretation. *In:* Craun G (ed): Investigation of Waterborne Disease Outbreaks. Arlington, MA: Eastern Research Group, Inc, 1990.

APPENDIX

For the purpose of modeling, it was assumed that the cysts have a random distribution in water and that a Poisson distribution would govern the probability of any given exposure. It The risk of infection was defined as a function of the exposure (N organisms) and the interaction of the host and pathogen. The parameters characterizing this interaction (r) were determined using the human infectivity data set. The data set for the experimental infection and de-

velopment of the model are shown in Table A-1. The single-hit exponential equation for the probability of infections is shown in Table A-2. The constant characterizing the host-cyst interaction with the best fit values to the data set is also presented. An average r value (that fraction of microorganisms that are ingested which survive to initiate infection) for the exponential model was computed by determining the value of r at each dose. The chi square goodness of fit

test was used to evaluate the appropriateness of the model for the data set. The single hit exponential model was used to evaluate the risk of waterborne giardiasis. Low level contamination of drinking water with Giardia (0.5 cysts/ 100L) would result in a potential infection rate of 0.02 percent in the exposed population using the exponential model while at high levels of contamination, (100 cysts/100L) a 3.9 percent infection rate was determined (Table A-3).

TABLE A-1—Data Set for Experimental Infection for Glardia Cyst Exposure

	Volunteers'	Response			P	redicted
Cyst Dose	Positive ^a	Negative	Perce Positive	ent with Respon	N _t	mber of
10:23	0	5. 0		0	the first telephone and the first	0.098
25 10 ²	6.2 2	14 0		30 00	A COLUMN TO A COLUMN TO SERVICE DE COLUMN TO SERVIC	0.359 7.809 1.724
10° 10°	3	0	and the second second	00 00		3
3 × 10 ⁵ × 10 ⁶	3 2	0		00 00		3 2

^aPositive response denoted by cyst excretion. ^bBased on function p = 1-exp(-0.0198N). Source: Rendtorff¹²,13

TABLE A-3 Potential Risk of Infection in *Glardia* Contaminated Drinking Water Using an Exponential Risk Assessment Model

Giardia concentration in water		
Cysts/100L Cysts/L ^e Daily Risk	Percent Infection	gan. Militar
0.5 0.005 2.0×10 ⁻⁴ 0.8 0.008 3.2×10 ⁻⁴ 1 0.01 4.0×10 ⁻⁴ 5 0.05 2 ×10 ⁻³ 10 0.1 4.0×10 ⁻³ 15 0.15 6.0×10 ⁻³ 20 0.2 8.0×10 ⁻³ 50 0.5 2.0×10 ⁻² 100 1 3.9×10 ⁻² 200 2 7.7×10 ⁻²	0.02 0.032 0.04 0.2 0.4 0.6 0.8 2.0 3.9	
*Assume consumption of two liters of drinking water per day.	100 mm	

TABLE A-2—Best Fit Distribution Parameters for Glardia Infection Probability

Model	Exponential Model
Equation	$p = 1 - \exp(-rN)$
Constant(s)	r = (01982)
Expected	
probability of	
infection from	And the same of th
an average	
dose of 1 cyst	0.0198
Number of	
infections in a	
population of	
100, each	
exposed to 1	
cyst	9

*95% confidence intervals for r = 0.009798-0.03582.
Source: Haas¹¹

June 1991, Vol. 81, No. 6

Contents

American Journal of Public Health

"Information for Authors" appears on page 134 in the January 1991 issue of the Journal and may also be obtained from the Journal Editorial Office.

American Journal of Public Health 1015 Fifteenth Street, NW Washington, DC 20005



American Public Health Association

June 1991, Vol. 81, No. 6

ISSN: 0090-0036

Established 1911

MUM

- 750 Pesticide Poisoning Surveillance through Regional Poison Control Centers D. K. Olson, L. Sax, P. Gunderson, and L. Sioris
- 753 Lead Exposure in Outdoor Firearm Instructors R. K. Tripathi, P. C. Sherertz, G. C. Llewellyn, and C. W. Armstrong
- 756 Soft Plastic Bread Packaging: Lead Content and Reuse by Families C. Weisel, M. Demak, S. Marcus, and B. D. Goldstein
- 758 Non-Hodgkin's Lymphoma in a Cohort of Vietnam Veterans T. R. O'Brien, P. Decouflé, and C. A. Boyle
- 760 Endemic Giardiasis and Municipal Water Supply G. G. Fraser and K. R. Cooke
- 762 The Microbiologic Quality of Drinking Water in North Carolina Migrant Labor Camps S. Ciesielski, T. Handzel, and M. Sobsey
- 766 Agricultural Machine-Related Deaths J. R. Etherton, J. R. Myers, R. C. Jensen, J. C. Russell, and R. W. Braddee
- 768 A Cross-sectional Study of Pulmonary Function in Autobody Repair Workers D. L. Parker, K. Waller, B. Himrich, A. Martinez, and F. Martin

Articles

- 714 Lyme Disease: A Proposed Ecological Index to Assess Areas of Risk in the Northeastern United States T. L. Schulze, R. C. Taylor, G. C. Taylor, and E. M. Bosler
- 747 Socioeconomic Status and Survival from Soft-Tissue Sarcomas: A Population-Based Study in Northern Italy G. Ciccone, C. Magnani, L. Delsedime, and P. Vineis

Public Health Briefs

- 764 Salmonella Egg Survey in Hawaii: Evidence for Routine Bacterial Surveillance M. R. Ching-Lee, A. R. Katz, D. M. Sasaki, and H. P. Minette
- 771 Measuring Physical Activity With a Single Question K. B. Schechtman, B. Barzilai, K. Rost, and E. B. Fisher, Jr.

Other Journal Departments

- 677 Masthead
- 681 Advertisers' Index
- 688 Erratum
- 801 Notes from the Field
- 803 Letters to the Editor
- 806 Book Corner
- 815 Job Opportunities

June 1991, Vol. 81, No. 6

American Journal of Public Health 675